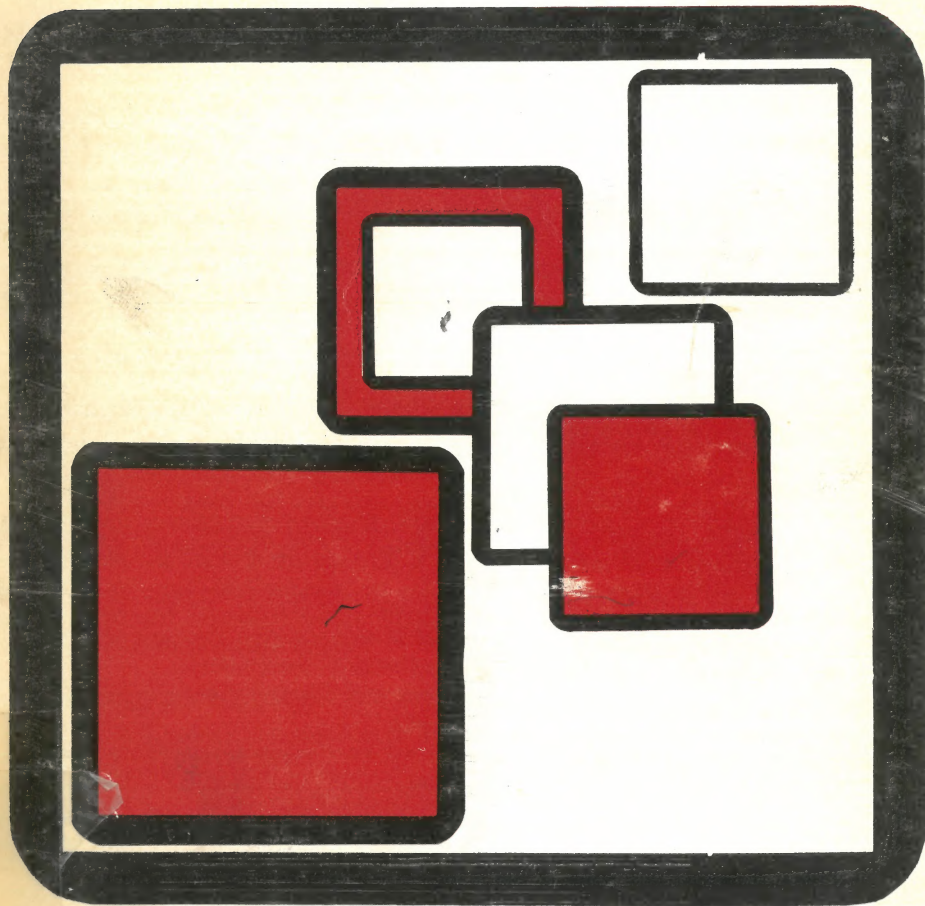


ETHNIC MINORITIES IN SOCIETY

The Community and Race Relations
Unit of The British Council of Churches
and The Runnymede Trust

A Reference Guide



THE RUNNYMEDE TRUST
62 Chandos Place, London WC2N 4HG.

The Runnymede Trust is a registered educational charity which was established in 1968. The main objectives of the Trust are the collection and dissemination of information and the promotion of public education on immigration and race relations.

The objectives of the Trust are carried out by a number of means:

An information service which provides accurate and up-to-date information on race relations and immigration;

A monthly information Bulletin;

Publications, including pamphlets, occasional studies, and briefing papers, on matters of current concern;

Seminars and meetings;

Specialist education work in industry;

Major census analysis project.

The full list of Runnymede Trust publications and other information concerning race relations and immigration in Britain and in the EEC are available from the Runnymede Trust.

The text of this Reference Guide was compiled by K Campbell-Platt, Information/Research Officer of the Runnymede Trust.

COMMUNITY AND RACE RELATIONS UNIT OF THE BRITISH COUNCIL OF CHURCHES
10 Eaton Gate, London SW1W 9BT

The Community and Race Relations Unit was set up in 1971 by the British Council of Churches in response to the conviction that the combating of racism and the development of good community relations is one of the issues testing most sharply the obedience of the Churches to the Gospel today. The Unit's task includes:

Encouragement of local projects, with special responsibility for grant aid from the allocation made by Christian Aid for community relations work in the UK.

Education, particularly of the Christian community, on all aspects of community and race relations, and the promotion of a greater awareness and understanding of Christian responsibility in these fields.

Advisory help to clergy and ministers and Christian congregations in multi-racial and multi-religious situations.

Keeping a watch on government legislation and administrative action and where necessary making representations to Government.

The Unit has produced a number of publications, details of which are available on request, and can help and advise with speakers, etc, for local meetings, as well as itself organising conferences and seminars in different parts of the country.

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ETHNIC MINORITIES IN SOCIETY

A Reference Guide

The Guide aims to provide an objective framework for the discussion of matters relating to ethnic minorities in Great Britain. It examines the pattern of immigration into Britain of recent 'coloured' and past 'European' immigrants. The 1971 Census of Great Britain is used to illustrate the way minorities are spread across the country; other official sources are also used to give information on employment and housing patterns.

An 'ethnic group' is one that is distinguishable from other groups by reason of language or other major cultural characteristics. Britain has, in the last century, been host to a multitude of ethnic minorities such as the Irish, Jews, Poles, Russians, and other minorities from Central Europe and more recently Indians, West Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis, Cypriots, Maltese and smaller minorities from a score of countries.

We have preferred to use the term 'ethnic minority' rather than 'racial minority' in this Guide — it avoids the spurious biological categories which have been used in a variety of societies to justify the cordoning-off and mistreatment of ethnic minorities such as the Jews, black Americans, coloured South Africans and Britons of West Indian, Indian or Pakistani ethnic origin.

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SECTION 1

THE MIGRATION — WHO CAME?

Britain is now, and has in most decades been, a country from which more people emigrate than come in to settle. There have, however, been some exceptions — the Irish started coming after the Great Famine in 1846/7 and the Jews came from Russia and Central Europe in the latter part of the nineteenth and early years of the twentieth centuries. The years of the second world war and the two decades which followed it, saw the arrival in Britain of the largest number of immigrants in her history — including coloured ethnic minorities from the West Indies, India and Pakistan. This section examines recent 'coloured' and past 'European' migration into this country.

1. Which have been the main immigrant groups in Britain?

The first large group of immigrants to come to this country in the past century were the Irish; although this immigration began as far back as the seventeenth century, it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that it assumed really large proportions. The repeated failure of the potato crops, culminating in the Great Famine in 1846/47 prompted a large-scale exodus to the United States of America and to Britain. In 1851 there were 519,959 Irish immigrants in England and Wales forming about 5.8% of the total population and 207,367 in Scotland, forming 12.9% of the population. Later, in the 1920s, strict quota restrictions on Irish immigrants into the United States also helped to channel Irish emigrants to the United Kingdom. Although immigration from the Commonwealth overtook Irish immigration after the 1950s, the Irish remain the largest single overseas-born group in Britain. In 1971, there were 709,235 persons born in Ireland (including Northern Ireland) living in Britain, forming 1.4% of the population.

The other large group of immigrants who came to Britain before 1939 were the Jews from Central Europe and Russia. Although immigration from this source was not significant in terms of numbers until the late nineteenth century, the emergence of the Board of Deputies of British Jews in 1760 indicates that there were already sizeable settlements of Jews in Britain by that time. The largest number of Jews arrived in Britain between 1881 and 1905; this immigration was subsequently brought to a close by the outbreak of the war in 1914, but British Jewry received nearly 20,000 people between 1914 and 1930. By 1939 a total of about 40,000 Jewish refugees were estimated to have come to Britain.

Coloured immigration on any scale is a post-war phenomenon. Despite

Britain's colonial history and links with the New Commonwealth countries, coloured people were seldom to be seen in Britain before 1939, outside the main seaports.

2. When did coloured immigrants start coming to Britain?

Immigrants from British colonies and New Commonwealth countries started coming into this country soon after the second world war, although their numbers were not significant until the 1950s. During the war, large numbers of troops from these countries had fought along-side British troops. Apart from the economic incentives, it was natural that many of these and other Commonwealth immigrants should look to Britain as a second home or 'mother country'. As British subjects, all Commonwealth citizens had the right to come freely to Britain.

A further impetus to the coloured immigration was the lack of jobs in the immigrants' home countries; in contrast, there was a demand for their labour in Britain's highly developed economy. In the twentieth century, poverty and changes in the structure of the economy, particularly in the agricultural sector, had made the *West Indies* an area of large scale emigration, particularly to the United States. Then as the British economy began to expand and to experience shortages of labour in the 1950s, and the United States increasingly closed its doors, immigrants from the West Indies and the Indian sub-continent started coming to Britain. *India and Pakistan* had been countries from which people emigrated as early as the nineteenth century; many of the emigrants went as indentured labour to other parts of the British Empire, particularly to South Africa, the West Indies and the East African colonies.

Throughout the 1950s a growing number of immigrants arrived each year in Britain, primarily motivated by the labour needs of the British economy and the harsh economic conditions in their own countries. In this period, the scale of immigration increased gradually with wives and other dependants coming to Britain to join heads of families. This increasing scale of immigration, particularly into areas already suffering from neglect and decay, led to an increasing identification of Commonwealth immigrants as the causes (instead of, as in reality, the victims) of inadequate housing, educational provision and social services. A number of factors, including the racial disturbances in Notting Hill and Nottingham in 1958 led to increasing demands for the control of immigration. Rumours of impending controls in the early 1960s, realised in the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962* and the tighter restrictions which it progressively introduced, triggered off large increases in the number of immigrants coming to Britain in the early part of the decade.

3. Did European immigrants come to this country in any numbers after the second world war?

Yes; after the outbreak of the war in 1939, large numbers of people fled

from European countries and Britain received thousands of people fleeing from the advancing German armies. By 1943, there were 114,000 civilian refugees from a host of European countries on British soil, apart from the large number of troops attached to the British army. In the immediate post-war period there were some 457,000 European migrants in Britain, including Ministry of Labour permit-holders and contract workers who had come under the European Voluntary Worker scheme. The largest single group consisted of Polish ex-servicemen and their families, numbering over 130,000.

IMMIGRATION IN OTHER EEC COUNTRIES

Immigration for work has been a common feature of most Western industrialised countries, long established in the United States of America, Canada and Australia. It has been a shared experience among the more prosperous European countries since the second world war. During the last two decades, fairly substantial flows of migrant labour have become an increasingly important feature of most European economies. The reason for these migratory movements have varied from time to time and from country to country; in general however, labour migration from less developed to more developed countries (for instance, from Turkey into EEC countries) is a reflection of the lack of demand for labour in the immigrants' country and the labour shortages in the receiving one. Although conclusive proof is not available, most experts agree that the availability of labour reserves from countries both inside the EEC (such as Italy) and outside the EEC (such as Yugoslavia, Turkey and Algeria) has been an important factor in the economic growth of the prosperous countries.

4. Have most EEC countries experienced the immigration of foreign labour?

Yes; with the exception of Italy and the Republic of Ireland. The pattern of immigration into European countries is reflected most typically by the Federal Republic of Germany which has had a need to import labour in times of industrial expansion and labour shortages in the home labour market.

The traditional sources of labour for Germany in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were other European countries and the countries in Eastern Europe. Between 1945 and 1961 more than 13 million refugees, mainly from East Germany, were added to the population, many of them to the labour force. Following the building of the Berlin Wall, however, the flows from the East stopped. During the last two decades, migrant workers from countries outside the EEC, such as Turkey, Yugoslavia and

Greece, have largely replaced migrants from EEC countries.

Among EEC countries only Italy and the Republic of Ireland have exported substantial numbers of workers in the post-war period, mainly to the United States of America, Canada, the United Kingdom and also other EEC countries.

Table 1

Immigrant* Wage and Salary Earners in Selected European Countries, in thousands.

Belgium (1972)	220.0
Denmark (1972)	36.4
France (1972)	1,770.0
Federal Republic of Germany (1973)	2,346.0
Italy (1971)	44.1
Netherlands (1972)	190.3
Switzerland (1972)	900.0
United Kingdom (1971)	1,823.0

*The definition of immigrant varies slightly in different national statistics. For the United Kingdom the definition of 'immigrant' relates to the total overseas-born population which was economically active in 1971.

(Sources: Switzerland, Denmark, Netherlands: *ILO Statistics*; UK: *1971 Census Advance Analysis*; Other countries: *EEC Statistics*.)

5. Have other EEC countries received large numbers of coloured immigrants?

Yes; up to now, the Netherlands and France, which have overseas colonies or departments, have allowed their citizens from these areas to enter freely — in 1971, it was estimated that there were 285,000 coloured Dutchmen living in the Netherlands and a total coloured population of 320,000. Citizens of the overseas departments of France have free entry into the country and it is estimated that there are over one and a half million inhabitants of these departments who have complete freedom of movement — ie. to live and work in Metropolitan France. In addition there were estimated to be 3.775 million foreigners living in France in 1973, some 7.3% of the total population.

SECTION 2

IMMIGRATION CONTROLS

There is at present tight control on immigration into Britain, for work and for settlement, from all sources except EEC countries (see in this section, paragraph 14).

6. Past Legislation controlling the entry of aliens.

The beginnings of the present system of immigration controls can be found as early as 1905 when the *Aliens Act 1905* was introduced to control the inflow of destitute Jewish immigrants fleeing from Central Europe and Russia. This Act was replaced by the *Aliens Restriction Act 1914* which brought more thorough control over the admission, movements and activities of aliens during the war period. In 1919, powers under the 1914 Act were renewed for a year and they were renewed annually thereafter in the form of Orders until the introduction of the *Immigration Act 1971*.

The Aliens Act and the Orders which derived from it did not apply to Commonwealth citizens who, owing to their status of British subjects, were allowed to enter Britain unconditionally.

7. Has immigration from the Commonwealth always been controlled?

No; Until the introduction of the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962*, citizens of independent countries of the Commonwealth and citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies (who under the *British Nationality Act 1948*, remained 'British subjects', but were also 'Commonwealth citizens') had the right of free entry to Britain. This right was underpinned by economic, political and historical beliefs — the economic belief was in the value of a 'free market' in labour; the political and historical argument for free entry was the belief, shared by politicians of all parties, that the traditional rights of all who owed allegiance to the British Crown had to be maintained, and that all British subjects should accordingly enjoy the right of free entry to Britain.

During the early post-war years, the persistence of almost full employment in Britain, and the need for labour, helped to mute the growing controversy over immigration. However, with increasing immigration into areas already suffering from neglect and decay, coloured immigrants began, as had the Jews before them, to be increasingly identified as the causes of existing inadequacies in these areas. Racial disturbances in London in 1958 and increasing demands from some quarters for the control of immigration finally led to the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act*

1962, which qualified the right of free entry for Commonwealth citizens.

Henceforth, Commonwealth citizens and United Kingdom citizens whose passports were not issued in the United Kingdom had to obtain a Ministry of Labour employment voucher before being allowed to enter Britain. The Ministry of Labour employment voucher scheme initially provided for three categories of voucher:

- Category 'A':* Commonwealth citizens who had a specific job to come to in Britain.
- Category 'B':* Applicants who had a recognised skill or qualification which was in short supply in Britain.
- Category 'C':* All other applicants, priority treatment being given to those who had served in the Armed Forces in the second world war or later and thereafter on a 'first come first served' basis.

8. Is the entry of United Kingdom passport holders controlled?

Yes; in 1968 a new piece of legislation, the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1968*, was rushed through Parliament in three days of emergency debates in order to restrict the flow into Britain of East Africans, particularly Kenyan Asians holding United Kingdom passports. The Bill caused considerable controversy because the British Government had given an undertaking to the effect that when Kenya achieved its independence in 1963, Kenyan Asians, along with British settlers, would retain their British citizenship, including the free right of entry, unaffected by the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962*. The effect of the new Act was to restrict free right of entry to holders of United Kingdom passports who were born in the United Kingdom or whose parents were born here.

9. What is the position in international law with regard to citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies with United Kingdom passports who have no connection with the United Kingdom?

Many citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies either have colonial passports, (i.e. they have connections with a given territory, such as Hong Kong), or even when they have Westminster-issued passports, are dual nationals who have more connections with the country of their other nationality than with Britain. Under international law, Britain is responsible for those citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who

have no close links with any territory and who have no other nationality. The Kenyan and other East African United Kingdom passport holding Asians fall into this latter category and the United Kingdom Government has been severely criticised for its policy towards these United Kingdom passport holders, which is seen as contravening international law. Since the introduction of the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1968* the number of United Kingdom passport holders from East Africa allowed to enter the United Kingdom has been regulated by an entry voucher system, thereby greatly delaying the arrival of many who wish to enter. In the uncertainties of the East African situation, this has been cause for concern.

The *European Convention on Human Rights* was signed in Rome on 4 November 1950, and entered into force on 3 September 1953; the United Kingdom is a signatory to the Convention and accepts the provisions which provide for states to recognise the right of individuals to petition the Commission and to accept the compulsory jurisdiction of the European Court of Human Rights. Petitions can only be sent to the Commission which first decides on the admission of an application ; if the application is admitted the Commission attempts to conciliate; if this fails a report must be sent to the Committee of Ministers and may be referred to the Court for decision.

A decision of the Commission dated 10 October 1970, related to the applications of twenty-five East African Asians who complained that they were refused admission to the United Kingdom or permission to remain there permanently. In each of these cases the Commission declared the complaints admissible along with a further six cases in December 1970. In its reasons for admitting the complaints the Commission was most explicit in relation to *Article 3* which relates to 'degrading treatment'; it stated that 'publicly to single out a group of persons for differential treatment on the basis of race might, in certain circumstances, constitute a special form of affront to human dignity'. In the light of this interpretation of the Convention and in view of its finding that the United Kingdom Government, 'have admitted that the intentions and the effects of the *Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1968* were discriminatory', the Commission declared the complaints admissible, but failed to reach a friendly settlement through conciliation. A confidential report has been sent to the Committee of Ministers who are at present considering the complaints.

10. Who has the right to come to Britain under present legislation?

The Immigration Act 1971, gives the 'right of abode' in Britain to people it defines as 'patrial'. They are:

(a) Citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who have that citizenship by birth, adoption, naturalisation or registration in the United

Kingdom, OR who were born of parents one of whom had United Kingdom citizenship by birth, etc. in the United Kingdom OR one of whose grandparents had such citizenship at the time of the birth of the relevant parent.

(b) Citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who have at any time been settled in the United Kingdom and who have been ordinarily resident in the United Kingdom for five years or more.

(c) Commonwealth citizens (i.e. not necessarily citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies) born or adopted by a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies by birth in the United Kingdom.

(d) The spouse of a patrial (provided that she/he is a Commonwealth citizen).

(e) The former wife of a patrial and citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies provided that she is a Commonwealth citizen.

All aliens, and all Commonwealth citizens (including citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies) who are not patrial, need permission to enter Britain. Those Commonwealth citizens admitted for settlement under previous legislation (i.e. persons legally resident in the United Kingdom free of controls before 1st January 1973) retain the right to bring in certain close dependants. EEC nationals may enter freely to work or to seek work; Commonwealth citizens with a United Kingdom grandparent are in practice allowed to enter freely.

11. What effect has the *Immigration Act 1971* had on the entry of coloured immigrants?

An important effect of the *Immigration Act 1971* is to put workers from New Commonwealth countries on the same footing as workers from other overseas countries (other than those from the Irish Republic or other EEC countries). They have become subject to control by annual work-permit, and thus to the possibility of non-renewal of the permit. Whereas Commonwealth workers previously admitted under employment vouchers had the right to settle, under this Act they have no right to stay on. After four years of working in approved employment they can, however, apply for conditions to be removed.

The Act itself is administered through immigration rules and the effect of the rules has been to limit the numbers of certain groups of immigrants — mainly coloured New Commonwealth citizens — seeking to enter this country for work and settlement. Under the Act, all aliens and all Commonwealth citizens who are not 'patrial' need permission to enter Britain. As the majority of nationals of New Commonwealth countries are unlikely to have parents/grandparents born in Britain, it is this group of

immigrants who have been most affected by the new regulations; immigrants from the Old Commonwealth countries, Australia, Canada and New Zealand are less affected, as they are more likely to have the right of patrial status by descent.

12. Do citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies have a right to come to Britain?

Only if they are patrial. Government policy at present is to admit citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who are not patrial by a system of special vouchers (the annual quota for heads of families announced on 3 May 1972, was 3,500; it was announced on 6 February 1975, that the annual quota for 1975 was increased to 5,000). In the case of the Uganda Asians, extra entry certificates were issued in 1972 because of the emergency situation; between 18 September and 7 November 1972, about 28,000 evacuees were allowed entry into the United Kingdom. These were citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies, who although subject to United Kingdom immigration control had nowhere else to go.

In May 1975, it was estimated that there were about 111,300 United Kingdom passport holders who were resident in selected countries abroad and who were subject to the special voucher system. In the House of Lords on 5 May 1975, a Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Lord Goronwy-Roberts, said in a written answer, 'The estimated numbers of United Kingdom passport holders who have no other citizenship and are subject to United Kingdom immigration control are listed below. The figures do not relate to heads of household but to individuals'.

Table 2

Kenya	21,000	Aden	5,000
Tanzania	13,000	Rhodesia	Not known
Malawi	9,000	India	25,000
Zambia	7,000	Pakistan	1,000
Zaire	300	Singapore	30,000

Lord Goronwy-Roberts said that there were also small groups of United Kingdom passport holders in other countries throughout the world — it was impossible to estimate their numbers but they were unlikely to be large.

(Source: *House of Lords Hansard*)

13. What about the Irish?

Irish citizens in practice are allowed freely into Britain. Under the *Immigration Act 1971*, Irish citizens are non-patrials, and are therefore in theory subject to the same system of control as other non-patrial citizens of the EEC. But the practical inability to enforce control is recognised by the device of a 'common travel area'. This area consists of the United Kingdom (which of course includes Northern Ireland, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man) and the Republic of Ireland. No one who enters the United Kingdom from elsewhere within the common travel area will be subject to immigration control unless he is a non-patrial who has come into the common travel area from outside, or who has left the United Kingdom after having a limited permission to be there which has expired. Irish citizens are, however, liable to deportation.

14. Is the immigration of EEC nationals unrestricted?

Since the accession of the United Kingdom to the European Economic Community on 1st January 1973, EEC nationals may enter freely to take up, or to seek work. They do not need a work-permit, but they do need a residence permit if they obtain work. A residence permit is normally valid for five years, but is not normally granted to an EEC national who has not found a job by the end of six months. A residence permit will be withdrawn if the holder becomes a charge on public funds. The free movement of labour of EEC nationals is governed by EEC Directives and Regulations.

Nationals of the United Kingdom have similar rights in other EEC countries. The term 'national' was defined by the Government in the *Treaty of Accession* (Cmnd. 4862—1), as follows:

'(a) persons who are citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies or British subjects not possessing that citizenship or the citizenship of any other Commonwealth country or territory, who, in either case, have the right of abode in the United Kingdom, and are therefore exempt from United Kingdom immigration control;

(b) persons who are citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies by birth or by registration or naturalisation in Gibraltar, or whose father was so born, registered or naturalized.'

In effect, United Kingdom nationals as defined above are citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who have patrial status and thus the right of abode in the United Kingdom (for a detailed definition of 'patrial' see paragraph 10). Most settlers in the United Kingdom from the West Indies

or India now have the right of abode and would therefore have the right of free movement in other EEC countries.

Work-permit holders from foreign and Commonwealth countries are not eligible to travel freely within the EEC until they have become citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies by naturalisation or registration (when they will of course automatically have the right of abode).

15. Who have been the New Commonwealth and Pakistani immigrants who have settled during the past five years?

The vast majority of New Commonwealth and Pakistani citizens accepted for settlement during the past five years have been dependants, mainly wives and children of heads of families already settled here. The following table shows the number of those accepted for settlement on arrival and by revocation of conditions imposed at arrival.

Year	Acceptances for Settlement		
	on arrival	by revocation of conditions	Total
1971	35,175	9,086	44,261
1972	59,850	8,669	68,519
1973	25,530	6,717	32,247
1974	25,306	17,225	42,531
1975	35,000*	18,000*	53,000*

*estimates.

(Source: *House of Commons Hansard*)

The numbers have fluctuated, for various reasons. In 1974 for example the immigration rules were changed so as to allow in the husbands and fiances of women settled in the United Kingdom.

SECTION 3

THE NUMBERS AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION FROM THE 'COLOURED' ETHNIC MINORITIES

There are still many myths and prejudices about that section of the population which has been socially defined as 'coloured'. (The definition is a peculiarly English one — the United States of America, for example, classifies people of Asian Indian origin as 'white'). The subject is, however, still capable of engendering enough controversy to justify the examination of the 'coloured' population of Britain, that is mainly those of West Indian, African, Indian or Pakistani origins and descent.

G.B. Gillian Lomas in her report, *Census 1971, The Coloured Population of Great Britain* (Runnymede Trust, 1974) includes in her definition of the 'coloured' population those born in, or one or both of whose parents were born in, other 'coloured' New Commonwealth countries: namely, Ceylon, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and other countries in Asia and Oceania. The 'coloured' population includes persons born in the United Kingdom to parents one or both of whom were born in the 'coloured' New Commonwealth. This section looks at the evidence of the 1971 Census on the number and geographical distribution of the main 'coloured' minorities.

16. How many coloured people are there in Britain?

The most recent figures for the total coloured population are from the 1971 Census; the final figure for the estimated size of the coloured population of Great Britain in 1971 was 1,331,000 forming 2.5% of the resident population. Of this, 36.5% had been born in the United Kingdom. It is estimated that in mid-1974, the coloured population numbered 1,744,000 forming 3.2% of the total population.

17. Which are the largest ethnic groups in the coloured population?

The table below based on the 1% sample data shows the number of people from the four most important areas of coloured immigration and their dependants born in this country. The population from these four main areas — Africa, West Indies, India and Pakistan — and their dependants born here represented over 90 per cent of the total estimated coloured population in 1971.

Table 3.**Overseas and United Kingdom born population by area of origin*, Great Britain 1971 (in thousands)**

Area of Parental Origin	Place of Birth		Total	UK born as % of total
	Area of Origin	U.K.		
Africa	119.5	48.5	168.0	29
West Indies	222.9	223.3	446.2	50
India	256.3	226.8	483.1	47
Pakistan	128.3	41.4	169.7	24
Total	727.0	540.0	1267.0	43

*Excluding 'white' New Commonwealth born.

(Source: *Census 1971, The Coloured Population of Great Britain*, by G.B. Gillian Lomas).

18. How is the coloured population distributed?

Table 4 shows how each of the four main groups was distributed in 1971.

Table 4.**Distribution by region for selected birthplace groups
England and Wales, 1971.**

	Place of Birth					Total Africa W. Indies India & Pakistan
	United Kingdom	Africa	West Indies	India	Pakistan	
Total number	45,585,200 = 100%	134,350 = 100%	299,580 = 100%	274,545 = 100%	131,885 = 100%	840,330 = 100%
REGION						
North	7.1	0.6	0.3	0.8	2.0	0.8
Yorks and Humberside	10.1	2.8	5.0	5.9	19.7	7.3
North West	14.2	5.9	4.6	6.6	14.6	7.0
East Midlands	7.1	7.1	4.9	7.4	3.5	5.8
West Midlands	10.5	7.6	15.2	20.9	20.9	16.7
East Anglia	3.5	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1
South East	33.8	70.4	65.3	53.8	35.6	57.7
South West	7.9	3.7	3.0	3.3	1.4	3.0
Wales	5.8	0.6	0.6	0.4	1.1	0.6

(Source: *Census 1971, The Coloured Population of Great Britain*, by G. B. Gillian Lomas)

(Figures used in Table 4 are based on the 100 per cent data from the 1971 Census and do not agree exactly with those in the previous table which are based on the 1 per cent sample data. The figures in table 4 are more likely to be accurate). The figures indicate that different immigrant groups show different patterns of geographical spread. The Pakistanis have the greatest tendency to spread; for those born in India, the West Indies and Pakistan, the greater relative importance of the West Midlands becomes apparent. The West Indians and Africans are mainly clustered in the South East.

In 1971 the total New Commonwealth born population* resident in Scotland formed 0.6 per cent of the total population of Scotland. Table 5 shows that the population born in Africa, India, West Indies and Pakistan formed nearly 70 per cent of the total New Commonwealth born population in 1971.

Table 5

Selected birthplace groups, Scotland*, 1971.		
Total population	5,228,965	
Place of birth		
All New Commonwealth countries	29,650 = 100%	
of which:-		
Africa	5,950	20.1
India	9,150	30.9
West Indies	1,585	5.3
Pakistan	3,785	12.8

* The figures above do not include children born to persons of New Commonwealth origin in Scotland.

(Source: Census 1971)

19. What is the composition of the overseas-born population resident in Great Britain?

In 1971, the total overseas-born population resident in Great Britain was

3,589,850, forming 6.6 per cent of the total population. The following figures show the composition of the foreign-born population by major countries of birth.

Table 6

Country of Birth	No. resident in G.B.
Total Ireland	709,235
of which:	
Irish Republic	615,820
Ireland (part not stated)	93,415
Total New Commonwealth Countries	1,151,090
of which:	
Nigeria	28,565
Barbados	27,055
Guyana	21,070
Jamaica	171,775
Trinidad & Tobago	17,135
Cyprus	73,295
Hong Kong	29,520
India	321,995
Pakistan	139,935
Malta & Gozo	33,840
Total European Countries	632,770
of which:	
Germany	157,680
Italy	108,980
Poland	110,925
Spain	49,470
Total Other Countries	979,990
of which:	
America	131,540
China	13,495
U.S.S.R.	48,095
Turkey	6,615

(Source: *Census 1971, Great Britain, Country of Birth Tables.*)

These figures do not include the children born in this country to people born overseas (Figures for children born in this country to immigrants from selected countries are given in paragraph 17).

The above figures do include, however, a number of British people who were born abroad (for example, children of diplomatic and army staffs) who should not be included as members of particular ethnic minorities. This applies particularly to the figures given above for those born in India and Pakistan.

20. Who are the 'black British'?

The 'black' or 'coloured' people born in this country to parents who were born in the New Commonwealth countries, formed nearly 40% of the total coloured population in 1971.

Already by 1971 more than half of the population of West Indian ethnic origin and nearly half of all those of Indian ethnic origin were born in Britain. By the end of 1975 the proportions will have risen further. The black British, born in this country, may already form the majority of all people with brown skins living in this country. This means that even in statistical terms Britain is primarily a country with a variety of settled ethnic minorities, rather than a country of 'immigrants'.

21. What is the birth-rate among ethnic minorities?

The information which is required for the calculation of the birth-rate of ethnic minorities is not yet available from the 1971 Census. It is likely, however, that the birth-rate is slightly higher for certain minorities, such as Indians, compared to the birth-rate for the total population. Information about live-birth occurrences is collected regularly, however, by place of birth of mother, and the table below shows the numbers of live births occurring to mothers, by country of birth of mother, in England and Wales annually from 1969 to 1973. The figures show that although births to mothers born in New Commonwealth countries have shown a decline from 46,000 in 1970 to 40,900 in 1973 (1973 figures for New Commonwealth and Pakistan), these births account for almost constant percentages of total live births, (about 5.9%) since recording began in 1969.

Births to mothers born in the West Indies have shown a pattern of decrease over the last few years and fell by 1.7 thousand in 1973, compared to the number in 1972. Births to mothers born in Ireland have also continued to decline, both in number and percentage. Table 7 also shows that live births to mothers born in Malta, Gibraltar and Gozo, showed a peak of 3,100 in 1971 which has since declined to 2,700 in 1973.

The falling number of live births to mothers born in the West Indies suggests that births to mothers born in India are also likely to decline in number as this minority group becomes more settled in this country. The Pakistani community is an exception, however, because many families have not yet been united — as wives join heads of families in this country, the number of live birth occurrences is likely to rise.

Table 7

Birth Occurrences in England and Wales by Birthplace of Mother 1969-1973

Place of birth of mother	April 1969 - March 1970		1970		1971		1972		1973	
	Number (000's)	% of all live births	(000's)	%	(000's)	%	(000's)	%	(000's)	%
Irish Republic*	24.2	3.1	23.5	3.0	21.6	2.8	18.9	2.6	16.4	2.4
Australia, Canada, New Zealand	2.2	0.3	2.3	0.3	2.4	0.3	2.4	0.3	2.4	0.4
New Commonwealth** of which:	46.1	5.9	46.0	5.9	45.2	5.8	43.0	5.9	34.1	5.1
Bangladesh, India, Pakistan**	20.6	2.6	21.3	2.7	21.6	2.8	21.2	2.9	13.6	2.0
Africa	4.9	0.6	4.9	0.6	5.0	0.6	5.1	0.7	5.5	0.8
West Indies***	15.1	1.9	14.1	1.8	12.5	1.6	10.8	1.5	9.1	1.3
Malta, Gibraltar, Cyprus	3.0	0.4	3.0	0.4	3.1	0.4	2.9	0.4	2.7	0.4
Remainder New Commonwealth	2.5	0.3	2.6	0.3	3.0	0.4	3.0	0.4	3.2	0.5
Pakistan****	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.8	1.0
Other Foreign	9.4	2.5	19.7	2.5	19.6	2.5	18.6	2.6	17.7	2.6
Total with mother born outside U.K.	91.8	11.7	91.5	11.7	88.8	11.3	83.0	11.4	77.5	11.5
U.K.	680.8	86.9	684.5	87.3	689.7	88.1	640.0	88.2	596.9	88.3
Not stated	10.6	1.4	8.5	1.1	4.6	0.6	2.5	0.3	1.6	0.2
Total	783.3	100.0	784.5	100.0	783.2	100.0	725.4	100.0	676.0	100.0

* Including Ireland part not stated ** Excluding Pakistan after 1972

*** Including Guyana and Belize (formerly British Honduras)

**** From 1973

(Source: Registrar General's Quarterly Returns)

22. At what rate is the coloured population increasing?

In an article in *Population Trends* (No. 2 Winter 1975) the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys published mid-year estimates of the size of the population of New Commonwealth and Pakistani origin for the years 1966 to 1974. The estimates were made by using the results of the 1971 Census as the starting point from which to carry the estimates forward to 1974 and backwards to 1966 using data on births, deaths and international migration.

The table shows that the estimated population of New Commonwealth and Pakistani origin has increased over the period mid-1966 to mid-1974 from 1,016,000 to 1,744,000 or from 1.9 per cent to 3.2 per cent of the resident population of Great Britain. The figures also show that this growth took place at a faster rate in the early years of the period than in the later; further, the proportion born in the United Kingdom steadily increased from 36.7 per cent in mid-1971 to 39.4 per cent in mid-1974.

Table 8. Mid-year estimates of the population of New Commonwealth and Pakistani ethnic origin, Great Britain, 1966-74 (in thousands).

	Mid-year to mid-year							
	1966-7	1967-8	1968-9	1969-70	1970-1	1971-2	1972-3	1973-4
Population at beginning of period	1016	1103	1217	1320	1411	1501	1583	1673
Births	+45	+47	+50	+52	+52	+49	+47	+45
Deaths*	- 3	- 3	- 4	- 4	- 4	- 4	- 5	- 5
Natural increase	+42	+44	+46	+48	+48	+45	+42	+40
Migration	+45	+70	+57	+43	+42	+37	+48	+31†
Change in year	+87	+114	+103	+91	+90	+82	+90	+71
Population at end of period	1103	1217	1320	1411	1501	1583	1673	1744
Per cent of home population at end of period	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.2

*Including deaths of children of new Commonwealth ethnic origin born in the UK

†Provisional

SECTION 4

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION AND THE LAW

The two Acts of Parliament specifically concerned with racial discrimination are the *Race Relations Acts 1965 and 1968*.

The first attempt to legislate against racial discrimination in public places in Britain was made in a Private Members Bill introduced by a Labour MP, Mr. Reginald (later Lord) Sorensen, in 1951. In the years between 1952 and 1964 Mr. Fenner (now Lord) Brockway, made ten attempts to persuade Parliament to legislate on the subject. From 1960 onwards, the support for legislation widened to both parties. After the racial disturbances in Notting Hill in 1958, the Labour Party issued a statement urging the Conservative Government to outlaw 'the public practice of discrimination', and also pledging the next Labour Government to take an early opportunity to introduce such legislation. In October 1967, the results and recommendations of an investigation into anti-discrimination legislation in other countries were published. The study *Anti-Discrimination Legislation, The Street Report* by Professor Harry Street, Geoffrey Howe, Q.C., and Geoffrey Bindman, published by PEP (1967) which was sponsored by the Race Relations Board and the National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants, studied the American and Canadian experience and made certain proposals, including (1) that legislation must deal with the worst problems, namely housing and employment; and (2) that the legislation must contain adequate provision for enforcement. The *Race Relations Act 1965* had been confined to discrimination in specified places of public resort. The *Race Relations Act 1968* extended the provisions of the earlier Act to cover a wider field, notably jobs, housing and the provision of services.

This section examines the provisions of the legislation against racial discrimination and its effectiveness in reducing the extent of discriminatory practices against ethnic minorities in the main spheres of life.

23. Why do we need a Race Relations Act?

In its first Annual Report (1966-67), the Race Relations Board stated 'the role of legislation is as follows:

1. A law is an unequivocal declaration of public policy.
2. A law gives support to those who do not wish to discriminate, but who feel compelled to do so by public pressure.
3. A law gives protection and redress to minority groups.

4. A law thus provides for the peaceful and orderly adjustments of grievances and the release of tensions.
5. A law reduces prejudice by discouraging the behaviour in which prejudice finds expression.'

24. What is the scope of the *Race Relations Act 1968*?

The *Race Relations Act 1968* extended the provisions of the 1965 Act to cover a wider field — notably, jobs, housing and the provision of services. The Act makes it unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of colour, race or ethnic or national origins in providing facilities and services. (Services include professional and business services and those of local and public authorities; facilities include banking, insurance and education).

The *Race Relations Act 1965* established the Race Relations Board which has the function of securing compliance under the Act; the Board does not have responsibility for action under Section 6 of the *Race Relations Act 1965* ('incitement to racial hatred' cases are dealt with by the Attorney-General), nor does it deal with immigration or community relations. The 1968 Act established the Community Relations Commission (CRC) which replaced the former, non-statutory body, the National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants. Its duties, as set out in Section 25 of the Act, are to promote harmonious community relations and to advise the Home Secretary on matters concerning community relations. Under its general aegis operate a number of independent local community relations councils — voluntary bodies set up in areas of immigrant settlement to promote good community relations. The councils include representatives of local organisations including local government, trades councils and churches.

25. Has the race relations legislation been effective in reducing the extent of discriminatory practices?

Evidence from reliable studies and surveys suggests that with some exceptions the legislation has been ineffective in reducing the extent of discrimination against ethnic minorities. The reports, *Racial Disadvantage in Employment*, (June 1974), and *The Extent of Racial Discrimination*, (September 1974) published by Political and Economic Planning (PEP), indicated that discrimination in employment, in particular, was widespread. Comparison of the results of the 1974 study on employment with the results of a study conducted by PEP in 1967 showed that in 1974 there appeared to be a lower level of discrimination against people with high qualifications as compared with the level in 1967; furthermore the 1974 findings showed a marked decline in discrimination

against potential coloured house buyers. Despite these findings, however, and despite the fact that the *Race Relations Act 1968* had been in operation for six years by 1974, the PEP study of September 1974 found a 'substantial level of discrimination in all manual job recruitment — the tests indicated that an Asian or West Indian would, when applying for an unskilled job, face discrimination in at least a third, and perhaps as many as half of all cases.' This implied, according to the report, tens of thousands of cases annually, compared with the 150 employment complaints received by the Race Relations Board in 1973.

26. Why has the race relations legislation been criticised as being ineffective?

A number of factors may have contributed to the limited success of the legislation in curbing discriminatory practices. The Race Relations Board in its Annual Report for 1971-72, referred to the 'inherent weakness of any complaint-based system' which most victims of discrimination did not utilise. Criticism has also been voiced against the principle of conciliation which is the linchpin of the present legislation. The Board is bound to seek solutions outside the courts in the first instance and can take legal action only if this attempt fails. The Act has also been criticised by the Board as being too narrow in scope and too restricted in the powers it gives to the Board. It does not, for example, extend to membership of working mens' clubs, a limitation which the House of Lords has re-affirmed in two recent decisions.

Many of these weaknesses have been implicitly recognised by the Government in the *Sex Discrimination Act 1975* which in many respects, particularly in the investigation and enforcement machinery and powers which it creates, goes substantially further than present race relations legislation. The Government's legislative proposals were contained in a White Paper entitled *Equality for Women* published in September 1974, and embodied in the *Sex Discrimination Bill* presented to Parliament in March 1975. The *Sex Discrimination Act 1975* received Royal Assent on 12 November and was introduced on 29 December 1975. In February 1976 a Race Relations Bill similar in its provisions to the *Sex Discrimination Act*, was laid before Parliament. (See Section 6 on the future legal framework).

27. How much can we expect of the law?

Critics of the Race Relations Acts have voiced fears that legislation against discrimination might arouse the very prejudices which it was designed to combat; and that it would in any case neither be effective nor enforceable. Against this it has been argued (see paragraph 25) that in this field the law

could help to weaken prejudice; and that given the proven pattern of very substantial discrimination against coloured people, and the limited political and social pressure which they could exert on their own behalf, only the law could underwrite genuine access to equal opportunity and equal treatment.

There have now been several years of experience with the Acts. Who was right? On the question of *prejudice*, the supporters of the law seem to have been justified. Evidence cited in the next section suggests that, despite continuing discrimination against coloured people, the existence of the law has not aroused hostility among the white majority to the principle of equal treatment for coloured ethnic minorities. On the other hand, the evidence of the PEP reports quoted in paragraph 30, and of research published by the Runnymede Trust on council housing in London and employment in Walsall, supports the view that the law has, to a great extent, been ineffective in eradicating *discrimination* against ethnic minorities. These two conclusions suggest that if the law is to be changed it should be made more effective and capable of enforcement, rather than watered down or abolished. It is generally accepted however that discrimination on the grounds of race, colour, ethnic or national origins or sex can only be eliminated by a combination of legal and educational means. That is why governments in the U.S.A., Canada, New Zealand and Sweden, as well as in the United Kingdom have put considerable emphasis on a steady programme of educational and information work designed to change hostile attitudes and negative stereotypes.

SECTION 5

ETHNIC MINORITIES IN SOCIETY

This section examines the situation of ethnic minorities with regard to the important and interrelated areas in which society shows whether it provides equality of opportunity for all its members — namely, in employment, housing, education and the social services. As we mentioned in *Section 2*, many ethnic minorities, including the Irish, have been identified as the causes, instead of, in reality, the victims of inadequate housing, educational provision and social services, and poorly paid jobs.

The presence of ethnic minorities with distinct and in some cases, radically differing traditions and cultures does, however, raise some questions which go beyond the notion of equality of opportunity. To what extent should British social institutions adapt to meet the special demands of ethnic minorities? What changes is it reasonable to expect minorities to make? It is where neither the claims of existing British institutions, nor the rights to individuality of ethnic minorities are obviously over-riding that much of the potential for tension exists. The injustices of discrimination are closely bound up with the problems of pluralism — problems which can be particularly acute when the moral code subscribed to by an ethnic minority appears to require a social order which is different from or at variance with the prevailing one.

Problems of pluralism are well highlighted in society where ethnic minorities with separate and identifiable religious and cultural beliefs seek to retain their customs and values. Although the West Indian ethnic minority is predominantly Christian, other minorities with different religious beliefs and customs such as the Jews, Sikhs, Muslims and Hindus exist in a society whose institutions have grown out of the Christian tradition.

28. How prejudiced is Britain?

The extent of racial or colour prejudice is difficult to measure because prejudice relates to attitudes which may or may not be expressed in actual discriminatory acts or practices.

A recent survey by the Community Relations Commission carried out by the Opinion Research Centre Ltd. based on a representative national sample of 1,111 adults between October and 3 November 1974, suggests that although the majority of the British public may not have welcomed the arrival of newer minorities they do, however, generally accept them now that they live here. The following table shows that the majority of people in the sample thought that coloured people should be treated the same as white people, for instance, in the allocation of council houses, in applying for jobs, or going to pubs.

Table 9**Answers to the question: Should coloured people be treated differently or the same as white people?**

The Situation	% Replies to the Question		
	Differently	Same	Don't Know
A. When allocating council houses	24	69	7
B. When letting or selling a private house	19	71	10
C. When applying for a job	13	82	6
D. When going to a pub	4	89	6
E. When applying to join a club	10	81	10
F. When selecting which schools children should go to	12	83	6

(Source: *Community Relations Commission*)

29. Has there been a change of attitude towards coloured people over time?

A survey carried out by Opinion Research Centre Ltd., for the Community Relations Commission, between 18 and 22 July 1973 on a national sample of 1,022 adults, suggested that although there was a general trend of opinion which was hostile to coloured people there were points which gave rise to hopes that the situation was improving. The survey, which dealt mainly with questions regarding illegal immigration and deportation, also included two questions about coloured people already here. These same questions had been asked by the Gallup Poll in April 1968 and September 1972.

The first question asked whether 'on the whole this country has benefited or been harmed through immigrants coming to settle here from the Commonwealth?'. The proportion saying 'benefited' had risen from 16 per cent in 1968 to 22 per cent in 1973 and the proportion saying 'harmed' had fallen from 61 per cent in 1968 to 51 per cent in 1973.

The second question asked whether 'feeling between white people and coloured people is getting better, getting worse or remaining the same?'. The proportion who said 'getting better' rose from 6 per cent in 1968 to 24 per cent in 1973, the proportion who said 'getting worse' fell from 55 per cent in 1968 to 33 per cent in 1973. Answers to both questions suggested that there had been some change in the attitudes towards coloured people over the five-year period — the change showed a lessening hostility.

30. What kind of discrimination is there against minority ethnic groups?

Discrimination on the basis of colour and nationality is most prevalent, according to a recent report prepared by Political and Economic Planning (PEP) in the field of employment. The reports, *Racial Disadvantage in Employment* (June 1974) and the *Extent of Racial Discrimination* (September 1974) both found a substantial level of discrimination against 'coloured' ethnic minorities. (The findings of the June 1974 report are described in greater detail in paragraph 33)

The Race Relations Board has been concerned over the extent of 'passive' discrimination whereby, (for example, in some public and private bodies) the majority of coloured or black people seem to be concentrated in the low status jobs, not because the organisations actively discriminate against them but because of the tacit acceptance, by coloured as well as white, of a continuing situation of inequality. Unless firms pursue programmes of 'positive' discrimination, the situation seems likely to remain unchanged. In the field of housing, however, a PEP report (September 1974) concluded that the incidence of discrimination on the basis of colour in house purchase had fallen in extent, compared to the situation in 1967. Differential treatment of ethnic minorities in the allocation of G.L.C. council housing has been highlighted in a recent report prepared by the Runnymede Trust (February 1975) which stated that ethnic minorities were concentrated in the least attractive, pre-war council estates in inner city areas. The finding was confirmed by a PEP study on *Racial Minorities and Public Housing* published in September 1975. (See Paragraph 38)

EMPLOYMENT

31. What kinds of jobs do people from ethnic minority groups do?

Because of delays in processing 1971 Census information, the most recent reliable evidence is that from the 1966 Census of Population. This indicated that workers from the three major ethnic groups, Indian, Pakistani, and West Indian, differed to some extent in the jobs they did, the sectors they worked in, and in their distribution across the country (see Section 3). Table 10 gives the occupational distribution of New Commonwealth immigrants in Great Britain in 1966. The table indicates the relative importance of the transport and engineering industries for West Indian men; for men born in India and Pakistan the engineering industry and professional work were most important. Of all New Commonwealth-born female workers, however, the largest percentage were to be found in professional work; this percentage of 22.13 compares with 10.27 for all females in the labour force, and may be partly accounted for by the relatively high proportion of New Commonwealth-born women who work within the nursing profession.

Table 10

Occupational Distribution of Commonwealth Immigrants in Great Britain

	All New Commonwealth		India and Pakistan		British Caribbean		Total Labour Force	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Percentage of Population 15+ who are economically Active =	88.16	50.05	90.96	37.14	94.00	66.00	84.05	42.18
Total number economically active (thousands)	353.3	150.1	157.6	38.9	115.7	74.1	15993.8	8862.6
Occupation (%)								
Farmers	0.50	0.22	0.48	0.44	0.22	0.03	4.75	1.18
Miners	0.25	—	0.15	—	0.49	—	2.33	—
Chemical Workers	0.88	0.22	0.90	0.21	1.19	0.30	0.80	0.20
Glass Workers	0.44	0.15	0.48	0.10	0.49	0.22	0.43	0.40
Metal Workers	2.47	0.26	2.91	0.10	2.95	0.45	1.24	0.14
Electrical Workers	2.52	1.60	1.95	1.49	2.88	1.94	3.30	0.98
Engineering Workers	14.85	6.80	13.50	3.29	19.11	10.97	15.40	3.46
Woodworkers	3.29	0.17	1.58	0.15	6.69	0.19	2.85	0.15
Leather Workers	0.62	0.71	0.31	0.15	0.67	1.11	0.45	0.72
Textile Workers	3.84	1.49	7.65	1.34	0.89	2.05	1.01	2.75
Clothing Workers	1.37	10.47	0.94	3.37	0.94	10.11	0.53	4.32
Food Workers	1.73	1.85	1.40	0.85	2.14	2.73	1.74	1.38
Paper Workers	0.85	0.65	0.90	0.59	0.93	0.74	1.39	1.28
Other Manufacturing	2.78	2.36	2.89	1.39	3.67	3.31	1.29	1.45
Construction Workers	1.16	0.02	0.63	0.05	1.94	0.01	3.70	0.02
Painters	1.45	0.19	0.72	0.08	2.83	0.32	1.95	0.12
Crane Drivers	2.00	0.02	1.68	—	3.01	0.04	1.97	0.04
Labourers nec*	15.32	2.28	16.79	1.70	19.92	3.28	7.48	1.07
Transport Workers	8.49	1.59	7.06	1.70	12.62	1.84	8.34	1.85
Warehousemen	3.16	4.77	2.75	3.35	3.56	6.19	3.34	3.71
Clerical Workers	6.32	18.01	7.44	34.91	2.58	7.60	6.96	25.83
Sales Workers	3.44	3.38	4.79	6.64	0.79	1.25	7.70	12.99
Service Workers	7.71	19.44	4.49	14.35	3.44	22.11	5.43	23.96
Administrators	1.92	0.42	2.68	0.98	0.41	0.08	4.43	0.65
Professional Workers	9.95	22.13	12.28	21.89	3.22	21.91	9.16	10.27
Armed Forces	1.80	0.16	1.88	0.33	1.26	0.05	1.49	0.14
Inadequately Described	0.89	0.94	0.77	0.57	1.16	1.17	0.54	0.94
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

*nec — i.e. not elsewhere classified.

(Source: 1966 10 per cent sample census).

In 1966, the construction industry accounted for 20 per cent of all Irish born workers and 15 per cent were found in professional and scientific services.

Economic data from the 1971 Census, relating to four major cities — Bradford, Leicester, Manchester and Wolverhampton — showed that the manufacturing sector accounted for between 53.0 per cent and 79.5 per cent of 'coloured' ethnic minority group workers, compared with a range of 36.1 per cent to 52.9 per cent of all remaining workers.

32. Are many people from minority ethnic groups found in professional and skilled jobs?

Yes; as mentioned in *Section 2*, controls were introduced over the entry of Commonwealth citizens in 1962; the voucher scheme which was introduced was highly selective and the effect of the legislation in 1962 and 1965 was to change the pattern of immigration from one of mainly unskilled workers to one of professional and skilled ones. This was especially the case with Indian and Pakistani doctors, nurses, hospital workers, and other professionally qualified people, entering the country in response to the shortage in these particular areas.

The following figures which were given in a written answer in the House of Commons by the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Health, Mr. David Owen, on 5 February 1975, show the number of active overseas doctors in Great Britain and the percentage they form of all active doctors.

Table 11

Year	Number of Overseas Doctors	% of Total
1965	12,900	20.8
1966	14,100	22.2
1967	14,700	22.8
1968	15,500	32.5
1969	16,900	25.0
1970	17,600	25.3
1971	18,100	25.6
1972	18,900	26.1
1973	20,000	26.9

(Source: House of Commons Hansard)

33. Is there much discrimination against ethnic minorities in employment?

Yes; particularly against coloured groups. A survey of nearly 300 plants, with case studies and interviews, conducted by PEP published in June 1974, showed that more than half the plants were found to practise some form of discrimination and that a coloured man had to make twice as many applications as a white man before finding a job. The study, *Racial Disadvantage in Employment*, also showed that plants with appreciable numbers of coloured workers neither had supervisory staff from minority groups then, nor expected to appoint any in the near future. A second PEP report *The Extent of Racial Discrimination*, (September 1974), stated that substantial discrimination was found, even at the level of recruitment for unskilled jobs; further, that 30% of Indian and West Indian applicants were discriminated against at the earliest stage of recruitment — the written application stage — in a broad range of white collar jobs. This research included Greek subjects to test the extent to which discrimination related to 'foreignness' rather than to colour. Its authors stated that the findings in all the tests strengthened the conclusion that it was colour prejudice which underlay most of the discrimination shown in these tests.

Recent research published by the Runnymede Trust *Black Employment in the Black Country* by Dennis Brooks, (May 1975) showed that the pattern revealed by PEP at a national level was reflected in a typical West Midlands town. In a sample of employers, who between them employed some 1,800 coloured employees, the vast majority of those employees were employed in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs. Most firms only recruited coloured workers because no suitable whites were available, and of the 1,800 coloured workers in the sample only two were foremen.

34. Is unemployment among ethnic minorities high?

Evidence from the 1971 Census (Advance Analysis) showed that, generally, unemployment among men from ethnic minorities was not high; there were, however, some exceptions. The figures below show that a relatively high percentage of men born in the West Indies and in Ireland were not working in 1971. Among women from ethnic minority groups, unemployment was, however, with the exception of the Irish, substantially higher than among women in general. The particularly high figure of 13 per cent for Pakistani women not working may be explicable in terms of the cultural and traditional roles played by women in Pakistani communities.

Table 12

Country of Birth	Not Working in 1971	Not Working as % of all Working	Registered Unemployed as % of all not Working
Males			
West Indies	8,965	7.6	50.8
India	6,990	5.2	34.1
Pakistan	4,220	5.7	63.2
Ireland	25,795	8.9	—
United Kingdom	753,870	5.3	—
Females			
West Indies	8,090	9.4	18.8
India	4,475	8.7	12.4
Pakistan	765	13.0	23.9
Ireland	11,725	6.5	—
United Kingdom	451,420	5.4	—

(Source: 1971 Census Advance Analysis)

The above figures also indicate that the majority of unemployed 'coloured' people were not registered as unemployed in 1971. This may be due to a number of reasons, including the fact that some coloured people may be disenchanted with the kinds of jobs that are thought to be suitable for them, and which are offered to them by local employment officers. The figures show that just over half of the males born in the West Indies, who were not working, were registered as unemployed and consequently eligible for benefits.

35. Is unemployment among young people from ethnic minorities high?

It is an acute problem among youths of West Indian and Irish origin. The following figures from the 1971 Census show that males of West Indian and those of Irish origin, suffered a greater degree of unemployment than the overall percentage for the age group.

Table 13

Males aged 15¼ to 25¼: not working in 1971

Place of Birth	Numbers Unemployed	% Unemployed
United Kingdom	193,425	6.8
India	1,360	5.9
Pakistan	1,195	6.6
West Indies	2,250	14.5
Ireland	3,690	11.1
Africa	785	5.9

(Source: 1971 Census, Advance Analysis)

In the 15¼ to 25¼ age group, West Indians had a rate of unemployment (14.5%) which was double that for all workers in the age group (6.8%); followed by the Irish with 11.1% unemployed.

There is some evidence that the rate of unemployment among youths of West Indian origin had declined by 1973. In the two following years, however, the rate of unemployment among ethnic minorities and West Indian youth in particular rose steadily and at a faster rate than that for the population as a whole.

36. How are ethnic minorities affected by economic recession?

The figures below which were published by the Department of Employment in September 1975 show that they were much harder hit than the rest of the population.

Table 14

Changes in minority group* and general unemployment, November 1973 to May 1975.

	Number unemployed November 1973	Number unemployed May 1975	Increase number	Increase per cent
MINORITY GROUP UNEMPLOYED				
Male	9,087	21,671	12,584	138%
Female	1,667	5,902	4,235	254%
Total	10,754	27,573	16,819	156%
ALL UNEMPLOYED				
Male	416,100	667,000	250,900	60%
Female	77,500	146,200	68,700	89%
Total	493,600	813,100	319,500	65%

An article in the *Department of Employment Gazette* (Volume LXXXIII, No 9, September 1975) from which the above figures are extracted described trends in unemployment among minority groups* between November 1973 and May 1975, and made the following points:

- As a proportion of the total unemployed register, unemployed coloured workers represented 2.2 per cent of the total in November 1973 and 3.4 per cent in May 1975.

- About 96 per cent of unemployed coloured workers were registered in four regions in May 1975, — 44 per cent were registered in the South East, 37 per cent in the Midlands, 9 per cent in the North West and 6 per cent in Yorkshire and Humberside. The highest proportional increase in unemployment during the period was in the Midlands.
- In May 1975, about 37 per cent of unemployed minority group workers were of West Indian origin, 24 per cent of African, 19 per cent of Indian and 14 per cent of Pakistani or Bangladeshi.
- A comparison of analyses by age of unemployed coloured workers, conducted in February 1974 and 1975, indicated that the increase had been greatest among those under 25 years old. The age analysis for February 1975 showed that 31 per cent of male unemployed coloured workers and 44 per cent of females were under 25; comparable figures from the 1974 analysis were 23 per cent and 40 per cent.

*People registered as unemployed who were born in or had a parent (or parents) born in Africa, the West Indies, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and other territories in the New Commonwealth.

HOUSING

37. Are ethnic ghettos beginning to develop?

No; not in the sense that areas of our cities are becoming the exclusive domain of particular ethnic minorities. But various pressures, economic and social, do combine to localise ethnic minorities. In the early twentieth century, certain areas of the country, for example the East End of London, became well known as Jewish settlements. The majority of Jews were refugees who were poor, spoke no English and came from a very different culture which stressed the role of the family within the wider Jewish community. Similarly, among other ethnic minorities, particularly the Asian and Cypriot, there is a strong traditional desire to maintain family and community contact in a strange and sometimes hostile society.

This is a perfectly understandable wish, and one which British residents of overseas countries have themselves often expressed. Moreover, it is arguable that, as in the U.S.A., the concentrations of particular ethnic minorities in certain areas allow the development of political representation of minorities, whose interests may be overlooked when they are geographically dispersed. The understandable preferences of the different minorities cannot, however, satisfactorily explain or excuse the

pattern of poor and overcrowded housing which the censuses have shown coloured minorities as experiencing.

In the private housing sector a succession of research studies have shown that ethnic minorities arriving in the last two decades have, by virtue of house prices, been restricted largely to buying houses in the cheaper deteriorating inner-city areas. The contracting market in private rented accommodation has contributed to this process.

38. Do ethnic minorities face special housing problems?

Yes; early research enquiries (PEP 1967) showed substantial discrimination by estate agents and vendors against coloured would-be buyers in the *private sector*. A PEP report compared the situation in 1974 with that in 1967 and concluded that racial discrimination in sales of private housing had decreased in extent. For the majority of coloured people, however, a contracting market in private rented accommodation along with a lack of residential qualifications for public sector housing, have led to their buying the cheaper freehold properties in run-down city-areas — properties particularly exposed to the redevelopment schemes of local authorities.

In the *public sector*, evidence of deliberate discrimination is slim, but experts have drawn attention to the way in which framing of local authority housing policy and rules can discriminate against late arrivals or large families. The Runnymede Trust study on council housing in London quoted in Paragraph 30 above, examined the reasons for the concentrations of New Commonwealth tenants in the older high-density inner-city estates, and concluded that cultural and individual preferences were not an adequate explanation of the different and unequal situation of New Commonwealth tenants.

A report by PEP in 1975 *Racial Minorities and Public Housing*, found that Asians and West Indians tend to be at a disadvantage compared with the rest of the population when seeking council housing: they tend to wait longer before being rehoused, and when rehoused, they tend to be given accommodation of lower quality. The problems lay less in outright discrimination, though there had been some instances of this, than in an administrative system which had not been adapted to the needs of a multi-racial society. No attempt had been made by local authorities to check whether their systems for allocating housing were fair in practice to ethnic minorities. In practice, often they were not. Council housing policies had not resulted in the dispersal of minority families and in one area had clearly intensified immigrant concentrations.

Recent immigrants to inner-city areas who have taken privately rented accommodation have been particularly caught up in the growing tide of homelessness. The trend has been firmly established for a number of years. Professor J. Greve (*Homelessness in London*, Scottish Academic

Press, Edinburgh 1971) found in research carried out for the DHSS that between 1966-1969, the proportion of Commonwealth-born families admitted to temporary accommodation was one in five. He commented, "It is these (Commonwealth) immigrant families who now appear to conform most closely to the typical family becoming homeless in London ten years ago — then identified as 'the ordinary decent Londoners'. The incidence of other problems, insofar as they can be inferred from such symptoms as irregular employment, rent failure and family breakdown, appears to be largely concentrated among the British-born and the Irish". The PEP report described above found that, because homeless families being rehoused were generally offered the poorest possible accommodation, a high proportion of new Asian and West Indian council tenants were ending up in the poorer accommodation.

39. In what ways are minorities worse housed?

An analysis of the 1966 Census data for two major areas, the London and West Midlands conurbations, by E.J.B. Rose and others (*Colour and Citizenship, 1969*) showed that the general level of *housing density*, in persons per room, was about 85 per cent higher in the coloured immigrant groups than among the English population. The data also showed that, on average, immigrant households had 29 per cent less space than the English in the London area and 18 per cent less in the West Midlands. The authors concluded that the high housing density among immigrants was due to larger households and less space. The data also showed that in 1966, 70% of all immigrant households in the London conurbation were *sharing accommodation* — this percentage was twice that for English households. In the West Midlands conurbation, where the general level of sharing was below 5 per cent, 40 per cent of immigrants were sharing households.

The 1971 Census shows that households whose head was born in one of the New Commonwealth countries were five times more likely to be sharing accommodation than the average household, and nine times more likely to be living in shared accommodation without the exclusive use of both cooking stove and sink. Housing density among these households was also considerably higher. However, although exact comparisons with the 1966 figures are not possible, there do seem to have been some improvements in the 5-year period 1966-1971. Only 20.7% of all New Commonwealth households were sharing accommodation in 1971, and the average housing density for these households was 0.93 persons per room, (compared to the average of 0.6 persons per room for all households) almost certainly an improvement over 1966.

Table 15

Country of birth of chief economic supporter.	Persons per room	Percent of households which were:	
		In shared dwellings	In shared dwellings without exclusive use of both cooking stove and sink
All countries of birth	0.59	3.8	3.9
New Commonwealth	0.93	20.7	8.0
India	0.88	14.0	6.3
Pakistan	1.05	20.9	11.9
West Indies	1.01	25.1	9.4

(Source: 1971 Census)

40. How important is owner occupation for minorities?

The Census has shown that home ownership among ethnic minorities, particularly those of Asian origin, is high. This may be due to cultural or traditional values which encourage house-ownership; but partly also to the restricted number of other options open to recent immigrants.

Table 16

Housing Tenure Groups of Coloured Immigrants* in Two Major Conurbations

Areas of Residence	Owner Occupiers		Renting from Local Authority		Renting Unfurnished		Renting Furnished	
	All coloured immi- grants	English**	All coloured immi- grants	English	All coloured immi- grants	English	All coloured immi- grants	English
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
London Conurbation	32.6	38.9	4.2	22.3	18.1	29.0	43.6	7.3
West Midlands Conurbation	59.4	41.1	7.7	39.1	9.4	14.6	21.2	2.6

* Those born in India, Pakistan, Jamaica, rest of the Caribbean and British West Africa (Zambia, Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone).

** Those born in England and Wales.

(Source: 1966 10% Sample Census)

In their evidence to the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration (Inquiry into Housing 1971), Nicholas Deakin and Clare Ungerson, of the Joint Unit for Minority and Policy Research said, "access to owner-occupation is of particular significance because . . . it is often the solution which the immigrant himself would most like to adopt. But the attitude adopted by Building Societies towards coloured purchasers . . . and towards the type of property which is within his means to purchase, has severely restricted their opportunities . . . that so many immigrants have been able to purchase their own property despite a relatively low per capita income, is a striking illustration of the desire to escape the disadvantages inherent in housing in the private rented sector — the remaining sector open to them". The evidence included figures given in Table 16 which illustrates the nearly even proportions of coloured and English owner-occupiers in the London and West Midlands conurbations as early as 1966.

41. Is there any recent evidence on house ownership patterns of 'coloured' ethnic minority groups?

Yes; Table 17 analyses data from the 1971 Census and shows that owner-occupation among coloured households in four towns outside the main conurbations was higher than that for the non-coloured population.

Table 17

	Total Households		Owner-Occupiers	
	Coloured	Non-coloured	Coloured	Non-Coloured
Wolverhampton	5,895	81,329	65.7%	39.9%
Manchester	5,861	178,879	48.3%	33.0%
Bradford	5,561	94,446	72.5%	54.4%
Leicester	5,101	90,391	76.5%	43.4%

(Source: 1971 Census – Runnymede Trust special tabulations)

EDUCATION

In no social area, perhaps, is there as much debate and controversy as in education. The problems that the children of ethnic minorities may pose and face are intertwined with a whole range of problems to do with under-achievement, inner-city deprivation, social mobility and social class. What exactly are the problems and challenges which ethnic minorities present and with which they are confronted? What responses has British society evolved?

42. Do children from minority ethnic backgrounds tend to be under-achievers?

Yes; the memorandum by the Community Relations Commission to the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration stated:

'Overall . . . the evidence demonstrates a clear and consistent tendency for children of minority groups to perform less well in the educational system. West Indian pupils in particular are . . . over-represented in E.S.N. schools . . . A number of reasons have been advanced for this trend; some of them have to do with the failure of central government to give a positive lead on education in a multi-racial society, others have to do with the failure, of many local authorities to devise adequate policies to help the schools'.

(Source: The Report of the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration, session 1972-1973)

43. Do children from minority ethnic groups face other special educational problems?

The problems faced by children from minority ethnic groups have been highlighted not only by the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration but also in independent reports by voluntary organisations. One of the main problems faced by children from Asian backgrounds is that of an inadequate grasp of the English language. In addition, all children from minority groups, particularly those who arrived in this country at a fairly advanced age, have to adjust to a very different society with a different language, and different social customs and traditions. The child from a Muslim cultural background finds himself in a situation where the demands made by his family conflict with the demands made at school. Some research has suggested that the incidence of 'culture shock' may be an important factor in the under-achievement of many children from minority ethnic backgrounds.

The buried nature of problems which children from minority ethnic groups face has been highlighted in a recent report *Chinese Children* by Anne Garvey and Brian Jackson, (National Education Development Trust, 1975). They state that the language and cultural problems faced by children of Chinese ethnic origin have gone unnoticed partly because the

children are more scattered than any other group of immigrant children and the sheer scale, difference and future dimension of the question is hardly glimpsed. Secondly, in the last fifteen years, the overwhelming concern has been with the, as yet not fully solved problems of children from the West Indies and the Indian Sub-Continent, but, 'increasingly our society hosts large numbers of Chinese, Cypriot, Portuguese, Italian, Spanish and Turkish children . . . and for none of them — and least of all for the Chinese — does the teaching profession yet possess the insights, knowledge, relationship and specialist pedagogic techniques necessary to give them a fair chance in the society which will be — in name and reality — their own and future world'.

44. How does the educational system deal with these special problems?

With the help of funds provided by Central Government under Section 11 of the *Local Government Act 1966*, many local authorities have developed specific programmes for the education of children from the new minorities. For example, many local education authorities run special reception classes which aim to teach English to children from minority groups, as quickly as possible. The classes, which are sometimes housed separately from the main school, are run by specialist language teachers; although the children do benefit from this kind of 'crash-course', reception classes have been criticised for not always equipping the children adequately in the English language, before they are integrated into the normal school classes.

Increasingly, the importance of the home and cultural backgrounds of all children is being recognised and attempts are being made to involve parents in the education of their children. Some schools are making greater efforts to involve parents from minority groups through parent-teacher associations and through immigrant liaison officers.

The Educational Priority Area projects have also stressed the need to establish closer links and two-way communication between the home, community and the school. Strategies such as the establishment of home-school liaison officers, home visiting, school visiting by parents, community education centres and adult education are seen as even more important and require more effort in schools with many pupils of minority ethnic origin.

45. What is the Government's policy on the education of children from minority ethnic groups?

A recent paper *Educational Disadvantage and the Educational Needs of Immigrants*, (Cmnd. 5720, August 1974), stated 'the need to educate children and adults for life in a multi-racial society is recognised and the implications of this for the education service are accepted'. The paper announced the establishment of a unit to be called the Educational

Disadvantage Unit, as a fully integrated part of the Department of Education and Science. The unit will be geared to improving the performance of the education service in tackling the needs of those suffering educational disadvantage, including the majority of children from minority ethnic groups. The paper has been criticised for treating the problems of indigenous educationally deprived children and children from ethnic groups as similar, and also for recommending and initiating a single solution for the problems faced by these children.

46. Does a high density of children from ethnic minority groups affect the attainment of other pupils in a school?

Two recent studies suggest that the density of immigrants in a school is not a significant factor in influencing the attainment of other pupils. A study of Pakistani children in primary schools in Glasgow suggested that the attainment scores of all pupils were not significantly influenced by the density of immigrant pupils. This finding was felt to be of importance as it suggested that it did not matter whether there were over 20 per cent immigrant pupils in a class or less than ten per cent. A research paper, *Social and Ethnic Mix in Schools and the Relationship with Attainment of Children aged 8 and 11*, (CES RP9) by Christine Mabey, stated that the density of immigrants was found to be of slight importance in determining academic attainment of either indigenous or West Indian children in ILEA schools in 1968 and 1971; further, this factor did not appear to exercise any independent influence.

A report by the Schools' Council Multi-racial Education project, published in January 1975, suggested that special techniques used to teach immigrant pupils had helped to improve the standards attained by indigenous children.

Despite the contrary evidence, some teachers and parents do believe that a high proportion of children from minority ethnic groups affects not only the attainment, but also the general 'British character' of a school. A handful of local education authorities follow the policy recommended in a White Paper published in August 1965, that pupils from minority groups could be dispersed by a local authority, so that no more than 30 per cent of children in a school were from minority ethnic groups. This 'bussing' policy has been criticised because it was felt that children were being 'bussed' not according to ability but according to their ethnic backgrounds. In 1975, the London Borough of Ealing, which established a bussing policy in 1965, announced that an inquiry into the effects of this policy would be initiated. In November 1975, the Race Relations Board announced that they had formed the opinion that in bussing a number of Asian schoolchildren who had no special educational needs, Ealing Borough Council were contravening Section 2 of the *Race Relations Act 1968*.

47. What is meant by 'education for a multi-racial society'?

Educationalists are increasingly recognising and accepting the fact that the British population now includes people from a multitude of cultures who are an integral part of British society. In practical terms, this means that all children, not merely children from other cultures, need to be educated to understand and accept the multi-racial or cultural aspect of British society. Moreover, it may be necessary for the educational system to adapt to these changes and to devise new methods of communication, for example, with parents from minority ethnic groups who may have little knowledge about the British educational system and about the importance of the right kind of parental support for school children.

A few local education authorities, schools and colleges of education have responded to these changes and have introduced educational programmes to teach the history, culture and traditions of the minority ethnic groups in this country. The aim of such programmes is to reinforce, among children from ethnic minority groups, pride in and respect for their parents' cultural traditions. It is assumed that for the indigenous child, the programmes will provide knowledge of the immigrants' traditions which are no less rich and worthy of respect than the traditions in which he or she has been raised. These approaches attempt to promote tolerance of cultural and racial diversity on the part of all pupils.

One important aspect of a multi-cultural society is the fact that children from minority ethnic groups may have to cope with two languages. E.G. Ferris in 'Immigrants, their Language and Developments', (*Trends in Education*, No 19) states that a pre-school child is too young to reconcile the two cultures and to cope with the languages before his own mother tongue is formally established. Further, that the child may develop a sense of guilt or loss of identity if he/she is discouraged from using his/her own language at school when not learning English. This aspect of a child's development has been recognised — bilingual education occurs in the Gaelic Highlands of Scotland and Welsh-speaking schools of Wales. However, only a handful of local education authorities run mother-tongue language classes in schools for other minority ethnic group children.

H.E.R. Townsend in *Immigrant Pupils in Britain: the LEA Response* (1971), shows that there is little evidence that LEAs are helping pupils from other ethnic backgrounds to maintain the learning of their mother-tongue although some do cooperate with ethnic groups' organisations in allowing the use of their premises for language courses.

ETHNIC MINORITIES AND THE SOCIAL SERVICES

48. Has the arrival of coloured immigrants been a burden on Britain's economy?

No. While there is considerable debate and little agreement among economists about the effect of immigration on unemployment, economic growth, technical progress, the balance of payments and inflation, there is one area in which it is possible to reach reasonably firm conclusions — that is in the net cost to the economy of the social services absorbed by immigrants. Here it seems clear that immigrant workers, who comprise a predominantly working-age population with (originally) a relatively low number of children and dependants, and a relatively small population of retirement age, make a substantial once and for all net contribution to the economy. A careful study by members of the National Institute of Economic and Social Research (*The Economic Impact of Commonwealth Immigration* by K. Jones and A. D. Smith, 1970) concluded that taking public expenditure on health and welfare, education, national insurance assistance and housing into account, 'the average immigrant received about 80 per cent as much as the average member of the indigenous population in 1961, and the figure seems likely to be 85 to 90 per cent by 1981'.

49. Do elderly members of ethnic minorities face or present special problems?

As yet, because of the relatively youthful age of recently arrived ethnic minority groups, old people from these groups have made few demands on British society. Increasingly however, in many established areas of settlement such as Southall and Brixton, the difficulties of the elderly are being recognised. A report produced by Age Concern called *Elderly Ethnic Minorities*, (1974) examines, through three case studies, the problems and suggests means of alleviating them. The report states that in Brixton, despite initial disbelief from the local authority that there were any retired West Indians, investigation showed that many of the elderly from ethnic minorities were living in difficult circumstances. Further, it states that although these elderly people shared their hardships with those from the indigenous population, they suffered from additional hardships such as insecurity in a new environment, remoteness from their friends and relatives at home, a sense of isolation and of being 'different'.

50. Is there a disproportionate number of children from ethnic minorities in foster care?

Yes; this is particularly the case with children of West Indian and African origin, and also children of mixed parentage. A publication of the Community Relations Commission, *Fostering Black Children* (1975),

states that ethnic minorities share certain disadvantages with other poor groups in society which predispose their children to be in need of care. Although disadvantages such as low incomes, poor housing, and low social class are shared with the wider community, ethnic minorities are over-represented in each of these categories. In addition, cultural isolation, racial hostility and discrimination not only exclude families from ethnic minorities from the mainstream of society, they may also cause strains within the family itself and limit the parents' ability to provide and secure a comfortable home for their children. There is also some evidence of greater stresses on children of mixed marriages manifested in higher deviancy rates, which suggests a higher vulnerability to situations leading to local authority intervention through care orders.

51. Do young people from ethnic minority groups face any special psychological problems?

Children born in this country to immigrant parents do face considerable problems of identity and can be torn between the values of their parents and those of British society. One example is the plight of the young people of West Indian origin. In an article in *Social Work with Coloured Immigrants and their Families*, (1972) edited by J. P. Triseliotis, Gus John says:

'The young black person in Britain feels neither British nor West Indian and is forced to evolve a culture that is peculiarly his. He therefore has to try to find an identity which can only be black, neither West Indian nor British. He seeks to understand himself within the context of the reappraisal of white society by black people and notably by other young black people. He is not alone in his search for fairness and justice because of his blackness. He no longer chooses to accept white society's definition of him and to be self-effacing, deferential, aspiring after whiteness in order to gain acceptance. Rather, he is seeking to define white society for itself in the way that his parents feel they are unable to do. Black power, the resurgence and reaffirmation of black cultural identity, the growth of a distinctively black youth culture, all form the framework within which the black youth works out his stance to this society'.

The conflicts which children of Indian or Pakistani ethnic origin face are due to the greater difference of values and traditions between their parents' culture and that of the wider society. An example is the conflict young people of Indian ethnic origin may have with their parents over arranged marriages and the strain which daughters of Muslim parents may have in reconciling their school-inculcated values of independence and equality with traditional Muslim notions of the role of women.

52. Is there a high crime rate among ethnic minorities?

Crime among coloured ethnic minorities in this country has been a subject

more of speculation than research — what research there is suggests that there is a remarkably low crime rate for minorities of Asian origin, particularly those from India and Pakistan. McCulloch, Smith and Batta state in 'A Comparative Study Of Adult Crime Amongst Asians And Their Host Population', (*Probation Journal*, Vol. 21, No. 1, March 1974) that the crime rates per 1,000 persons at risk for both Pakistanis and Indians in a sample from Bradford approximated only one quarter of the rate for the remainder of the population. A minor but significant exception was a relatively high rate of sexual offences for Pakistanis, which seemed to be linked up with the preponderance of men over women and also with their residence in socially deprived areas.

53. Is the juvenile crime rate among ethnic minorities high?

The study mentioned above by McCulloch, Smith and Batta also suggested that the pattern of juvenile crime was very similar to that of the adults among the minorities of Asian origin, but overall their crime rates were considerably lower than that for adults. Another study conducted in Bradford in the years 1970-72 by the same authors (A Study of Juvenile Delinquency amongst Asians and Half-Asians, *The British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 15, No. 1, January 1975) on Asians, half-Asians and other juveniles (10-16 years old) confirmed the above findings. The findings also showed that half-Asians, or those from mixed marriages had a mean crime rate which was nearly five times greater than that for Indian or Pakistani groups. The authors suggest that this may be so because half-Asians suffer not only from the recognised problems of children from 'coloured' ethnic groups, but also from an intensity of confusion relating to personal identity — they have neither the inherited Asian culture nor the white skin which would permit them to acquire full white status.

Despite the fact that there is, generally, a relatively low rate of crime among ethnic minorities, there have recently been press reports implying that there may be a relatively high incidence of 'mugging' among young people of West Indian origin.

Although street crime figures by area of origin of the criminal are not generally published, the Lewisham Borough Council/Police Liaison Committee published a press-release in June 1975 which gave figures for muggings in the Lewisham and Deptford Police Sub-Divisions.

The figures showed that of the 103 cases of muggings during the period 1st January to 31 May 1975, 84 involved black youths. The press-release stated, 'without in any way condoning these acts, which are being carried out by a small minority of youths, they must be viewed against the present economic and social background. It is known that unemployment in South East London is relatively high, particularly amongst young people and school leavers. This is especially true of black youths. Job availability locally does not offer much hope for the immediate future'.

Although this comment related specifically to the London Borough of Lewisham, national figures for the rate of unemployment among those of West Indian origin suggest that the problem could be widespread. But mugging is not a peculiarly black crime; it is common in those areas where there is a lack of economic and social opportunities, in some of which, such as Glasgow, a West Indian population scarcely exists.

The lack of job opportunity and equal opportunity has been recognised by certain councils, such as the London Borough of Lewisham, which have been trying to attract industry to their area and have helped to establish projects through which young people can participate more fully in community life.

54. To what extent are the new ethnic minorities represented in central and local government?

Although members of ethnic minorities, particularly Asians, have been increasingly taking part as candidates in national and local elections, few have actually been elected at local level in proportion to their numbers in this country and none at all at national level. The involvement has mainly been through the three main political parties, but in recent years, a number of fringe candidates have also participated on issues which have been of importance to minority groups but which have not gained a wider platform through the main political parties. Religious and educational issues have been to the fore, as in the campaign run by Mr. Balder Singh Chahal, the Anti-helmet candidate in Ealing, Southall Ward, in the national election in February 1974.

The Liberal Party seems to have put up the greatest number of candidates for Parliament from ethnic minorities in recent years — in 1970, there were three candidates from ethnic minority groups, one in February 1974, and also one in October 1974. The Labour Party has put up two candidates from ethnic minorities, namely Lord (then Dr.) Pitt who contested Hampstead in 1964 and Clapham in 1970 and Councillor Bashir Maan who stood in East Fife in February 1974. Neither of the candidates was however elected.

On the local level, however, ethnic minorities are represented to a greater extent, mainly in areas of high immigrant settlement such as Ealing, Brent, Wandsworth, Islington and Camden. The success of members of ethnic minorities in local elections seems to be a more common phenomenon in the London Boroughs; many other members of ethnic minorities have, however, been nominated at local elections, but with lesser success.

SECTION 6

ETHNIC MINORITIES IN BRITAIN AND THE FUTURE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

A White Paper, *Racial Discrimination* (Cmnd. 6234), issued by the Government in September 1975 promised action on a number of fronts: in citizenship law; in tackling the 'remediable disadvantages' suffered by minorities; in the administration of Government race relations policy; and in the law relating to racial or ethnic discrimination. Specific proposals in the White Paper related only to the last of these; the others were to be dealt with later. In February 1976 a new Race Relations Bill was laid before Parliament.

55. What are the main proposals of the White Paper and of the Bill?

(1) *Wider scope.* The law will be extended to cover discrimination on the grounds of nationality and citizenship (not just national origin as at present). It will specifically cover education, and is intended also to outlaw discrimination in private clubs, other than those 'bona fide social, welfare, political and sporting organisations whose main object is to confer benefits on a particular ethnic or national group', such, presumably, as the London Welsh Rugby Club. Some of the loopholes allowing employers to discriminate in certain circumstances (for example in order to preserve a racial balance) will also be closed. One of the more radical proposals is that the law governing incitement to racial hatred (Section 6 of the *Race Relations Act 1965*) should be made more effective. It is proposed that it should in future no longer be necessary, as it is now, to prove a subjective intention to stir up racial hatred in order for an offence under the Act to be established.

(2) *Stronger enforcement powers*

The White Paper proposes that instead of the Race Relations Board and the Community Relations Commission there should be a single agency, with the following main functions:

- a) to conduct investigations in areas covered by the Bill and take action to eliminate unlawful practices;
- b) to promote equality of opportunity between people of different colour, race or ethnic or national origins generally;
- c) to conduct inquiries into matters outside the scope of the legislation which may affect the relative positions and opportunities of the different racial, ethnic and national sections of the community;
- d) to assist and represent individual complainants in appropriate cases;

- e) to keep the operation of the legislation under review and make recommendations;
- f) to conduct research and to take action to educate and persuade public opinion.

The investigation and enforcement powers proposed for the new agency, provisionally named the Race Relations Commission, go further than those of the present Race Relations Board. The Commission would have wide ranging powers to conduct investigations; to compel (in certain circumstances) the furnishing of written information, the production of documents and the attendance of witnesses; and to publish reports. It would be empowered to issue non-discrimination notices on those found discriminating, which would be enforceable through the courts, to which those accused of discrimination could first appeal. The new Commission would not, however, have the obligation to investigate all individual complaints of discrimination. In future, individuals would normally be expected to pursue their cases independently. The Commission would nonetheless have the power to advise and represent individuals in cases of strategic importance.

The forum for pursuing complaints will vary according to their nature. Employment complaints will go to industrial tribunals, and there will be a compulsory conciliation stage. Education complaints will go to the Minister of Education in the first instance, who will have two months in which to try to reach a solution by conciliation. All other complaints will go to the civil courts.

Other features of the White Paper are:

- A standing Advisory Council under the Home Secretary's chairmanship to advise on all aspects of the development and implementation of race relations policies;
- stronger machinery for monitoring, through the Department of Employment, compliance with the non-discrimination clause in Government contracts;
- an announcement of Government commitment to a regular system of monitoring as a vital ingredient of its own equal opportunities policy.

Omissions in the White Paper and in the Bill

Nothing is said about the future of existing programmes, such as the Urban Programme and activities funded under Section 11 of the *Local Government Act 1966*, beyond that a rethinking of priorities should be undertaken, which must await the outcome of the current public expenditure review. Similarly a response to criticisms (from the Select Committee in particular) on the administration of Government race relations policy is promised for a later date.

The White Paper states that all these omissions will be remedied in the future. 'The Government recognises that what is here proposed for a further attack on discrimination will need to be supplemented by a more comprehensive strategy for dealing with the related and at least equally

important problem of disadvantage'. The rationale for its proposals is given as the following:

'The Government's proposals are based on a clear recognition of the proposition that the overwhelming majority of the coloured population is here to stay, that a substantial and increasing proportion of that population belongs to this country, and that the time has come for a determined effort by Government, by trade unions, and by ordinary men and women, to ensure fair and equal treatment for all our people, regardless of their race, colour, or national origins. Racial discrimination and the remediable disadvantages experienced by sections of the community because of their colour or ethnic origins are not only morally unacceptable, not only individual injustices for which there must be remedies, but also a form of economic and social waste which we as a society, cannot afford'.

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(12) London Based Organisations involved in the field of race relations and immigration

Community and Race Relations Unit of the British Council of Churches, 10 Eaton Gate, London, SW1W 9BT

Runnymede Trust, 62 Chandos Place, London WC2N 4HG

Community Relations Commission, 15-16 Bedford Street, London WC2E 9HX

Race Relations Board, 5 Lower Belgrave Street, London SW1W 0NR

Institute of Race Relations, 247/9 Pentonville Road, London N1 9NG

Joint Council for the Welfare of Immigrants, 44 Theobalds Road, London WC1X 8SP

United Kingdom Immigrants Advisory Service, 7th Floor, Brettenham House, 14 Lancaster Place, Strand, London WC2E 7EP

In addition to the above there are numerous organisations which represent the interests of ethnic minority groups in this country; A Directory of Ethnic Minority Organisations in the United Kingdom is available from the Community Relations Commission.



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